

Transcriptional coactivator PGC-1 α regulates chondrogenesis via association with Sox9

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Chondrogenesis is a multistep pathway in which multipotential mesenchymal stem cells (MSC) differentiate into chondrocytes. The transcription factor Sox9 (SRY-related high mobility group-Box gene 9) regulates chondrocyte differentiation and cartilage-specific expression of genes, such as *Col2a1* (collagen type II $\alpha 1$). However, Sox9 expression is detected not only in chondrogenic tissue but also in nonchondrogenic tissues, suggesting the existence of a molecular partner(s) required for Sox9 to control chondrogenesis and chondrogenic gene expression. Here, we report identification of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ coactivator 1 α (PGC-1 α) as a coactivator for Sox9 during chondrogenesis. Expression of PGC-1 α is induced at chondrogenesis sites during mouse embryonic limb development and during chondrogenesis in human MSC cultures. PGC-1 α directly interacts with Sox9 and promotes Sox9-dependent transcriptional activity, suggesting that PGC-1 α acts as a transcriptional coactivator for Sox9. Consistent with this finding, PGC-1 α disruption in MSC by small interfering RNA inhibits *Col2a1* expression during chondrogenesis. Furthermore, overexpression of both PGC-1 α and Sox9 induced expression of chondrogenic genes, including *Col2a1*, followed by chondrogenesis in the MSC and developing chick limb. Together, our results suggest a transcriptional mechanism for chondrogenesis that is coordinated by PGC-1 α .

cartilage | mesenchymal stem cell | peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ | coactivator 1 α | limb development

Chondrogenesis is a tightly regulated process in which multipotential mesenchymal stem cells (MSC) differentiate into chondrocytes to form cartilage (1, 2). This process is initiated by commitment to the chondrogenic lineage and condensation of MSC, followed by differentiation into chondrocytes that is associated with expression of cartilage-specific genes. These genes include components of cartilage extracellular matrix genes, such as those encoding collagen type II $\alpha 1$ (*Col2a1*), type IX collagen, *aggrecan*, link protein, and cartilage oligomeric matrix protein (*COMP*), at various kinetics of induction. Expression of these genes is regulated at the transcriptional level (3), spatially and temporally, so that they have different and dynamic expression patterns during chondrogenic differentiation (4, 5). Subsequently, chondrocytes proliferate and secrete a cartilage-specific matrix to form the cartilage anlagen.

The transcription factor Sox9 (SRY-related high mobility group-Box gene 9) is a key regulator of chondrogenic differentiation and chondrogenic gene expression (6). For example, mice lacking Sox9 function display distortion of numerous cartilage-derived skeletal structures (7). Despite its importance for chondrogenesis, the mechanisms by which Sox9 regulates cartilage-specific transcription are poorly understood. For instance, expression of Sox9 is detected in nonchondrogenic tissues, such as the genital ridge (6), but it activates chondrocyte-specific genes only in the chondrocyte cell lineage. We recently revealed that Sox9 activates *Col2a1* via interaction with cAMP response

element-binding protein binding protein (CBP)/p300, a histone acetyl transferase (8). However, CBP/p300 is expressed almost ubiquitously, and, thus, the mechanisms for cartilage-specific transcriptional regulation is yet to be elucidated. These facts strongly suggest that an additional factor is required for Sox9 to activate expression of its target genes in a tissue-specific manner.

Insight into the molecule that might cooperate with Sox9 for chondrogenesis came from our whole-mount *in situ* hybridization analysis of mouse embryos with genes encoding transcriptional cofactors. In this experiment, we found that PGC-1 α , which is known to play a role in adaptive thermogenesis and gluconeogenesis as a cofactor for a nuclear receptor, peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ (9, 10), is expressed at chondrogenic sites. This fact prompted us to investigate the role of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ coactivator 1 α (PGC-1 α) in chondrogenesis. In this article, we show that PGC-1 α acts as a coactivator for Sox9 to regulate chondrogenesis.

Materials and Methods

Chondrogenesis of MSC. Human MSC were purchased from BioWhittaker. To induce chondrogenesis, 2.5×10^5 cells were treated in pellet culture with chondrogenic induction medium (11) with TGF- $\beta 3$ (10 ng/ml) as described (8) up to 2 weeks. Infection of adenovirus was carried out by incubating dissociated MSC with adenovirus for 1 h at 37°C, followed by formation of a pellet culture. Adenovirus was made with the AdEASY system following the manufacturer's instructions (Stratagene; also in ref. 12, in which transgene expression was driven by the CMV promoter). Purification and concentration of recombinant adenoviruses were done as described (13).

Tissue Culture and Transfections. Mature chondrocytes were isolated from human cartilage, and a primary cell culture was established (14). After passaging twice, cells were cultured at high density with alginate beads for 7 days (15). The human chondrosarcoma cell line SW1353 was grown in the same conditions described above. Cells were transfected by using Eugene 6 (Roche Diagnostics) as described (8). Comparable expression levels of Gal-Sox9 and PGC-1 α polypeptides were verified by Western blotting.

In Vitro Analyses. For immunoprecipitation assay, cells were washed and resuspended in RIPA buffer (0.15 mM NaCl/0.05 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.2/1% Triton X-100/1% sodium deoxy-

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Abbreviations: PGC-1 α , peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ coactivator 1 α ; Sox9, SRY-related high mobility group-Box gene 9; MSC, mesenchymal stem cells; *Col2a1*, collagen type II $\alpha 1$; siRNA, small interfering RNA; RCAS, replication-competent avian retrovirus; En, embryonic day *n*.

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and it was up-regulated at 1 h poststimulation and increased until 24 h poststimulation. To further examine the correlation between *PGC-1 α* expression and chondrogenesis, we compared undifferentiated MSC and mature chondrocytes from human cartilage, by monitoring the levels of *PGC-1 α* , *Sox9*, and *Col2a1* (Fig. 1*Q*). *PGC-1 α* as well as *Sox9* and *Col2a1* were detected in mature chondrocytes from two different donors. In MSC, on the other hand, we did not detect *PGC-1 α* and *Col2a1*, whereas *Sox9* was detected. These results suggest that *PGC-1 α* expression correlates with chondrogenesis in MSC.

PGC-1 α Regulates Sox9-Dependent Transcriptional Activity on *Col2a1* Enhancer. The above results lead us to hypothesize that *PGC-1 α* might act as a coactivator for *Sox9* during chondrogenesis. To examine this idea, we used a variety of *in vitro* analyses with the *Col2a1* gene as a target of *Sox9*–*PGC-1 α* activity. *Col2a1* is a well characterized chondrogenic gene, and its expression is induced during early stages of chondrocyte differentiation in a *Sox9*-dependent manner at the transcriptional level (23, 24).

First, we investigated the functional significance of *PGC-1 α* on *Sox9*-dependent reporter assays, using a luciferase reporter plasmid containing part of the *Col2a1* enhancer containing the *Sox9* binding site (pKN185luc) (3). We observed significant up-regulation of reporter activity (Fig. 2*A*) in the SW1353 cell line, which expresses *Sox9* (data not shown), demonstrating that *PGC-1 α* enhances *Sox9*-dependent reporter activity. To further verify the action of *PGC-1 α* on *Sox9*-mediated transactivation, we used the Gal4 fusion system with *Sox9* and a Gal4–Luc reporter containing 5-Gal4 binding sites and the thymidine kinase promoter. Transfection of *Gal4*–*Sox9* increased luciferase activity ≈ 1.5 -fold as compared with the basal level (Fig. 2*B*). Importantly, transfection of *PGC-1 α* in conjunction with *Gal4*–*Sox9* increased luciferase activity ≈ 5.5 -fold compared with *Gal4*–*Sox9* (Fig. 2*B*). These data suggest that *PGC-1 α* functionally contributes to *Sox9*-dependent *Col2a1* gene expression.

Second, we performed an endogenous chromatin immunoprecipitation assay with human chondrocytes (Fig. 2*C*). We clearly observed that *PGC-1 α* and *Sox9* are precipitated with a *Col2a1* enhancer fragment, where *Sox9* is known to bind and activate expression of the *Col2a1* gene. These results indicate that *PGC-1 α* forms a complex with *Sox9* on the *Col2a1* gene.

Third, we examined the physical interaction between *PGC-1 α* and *Sox9* by coimmunoprecipitation assay (Fig. 2*D*). We used human chondrocytes that express endogenous *PGC-1 α* and *Sox9* to address their endogenous interaction (Fig. 1*Q*). The precipitation was done with anti-*PGC-1 α* antibody, followed by Western blotting with anti-*Sox9* antibody. The result demonstrates an endogenous molecular interaction between *Sox9* and *PGC-1 α* .

Lastly, we performed GST pull-down assays to examine the direct interaction between *PGC-1 α* and *Sox9* (Fig. 2*E*). By using GST–*Sox9* protein and *in vitro*-translated *PGC-1 α* protein, we observed binding of *PGC-1 α* (amino acids 6–797; Fig. 2*Ei*) with *Sox9*, suggesting a direct interaction. To define the domain within *PGC-1 α* , we created a variety of constructs (Fig. 2*E*). The *PGC-1 α* protein contains two LXXLL domains at amino acids 142 and 209, previously shown to be required for an interaction with a transcription factor, hepatocyte nuclear factor (HNF) 4 α (21). We observed an interaction between *PGC-1 α* (amino acids 6–180; Fig. 2*Eii*) and *Sox9*, whereas *PGC-1 α* (amino acids 180–797; Fig. 2*Eviii*) did not interact with *Sox9*, suggesting that LXXLL (amino acid 209) does not contribute to the interaction with *Sox9*. We also did not observe an interaction between *Sox9* and *PGC-1 α* (amino acids 406–797; Fig. 2*Eix*), which contains the RNA processing motif. To further characterize the interaction domain within *PGC-1 α* (amino acids 6–180; Fig. 2*Eii*), we created *PGC-1 α* (amino acids 6–90; Fig. 2*Eiv*) lacking the LXXLL domain (amino acid 142) and *PGC-1 α* (amino acids 90–180; Fig. 2*Evi*) that is complementary to *PGC-1 α* (amino

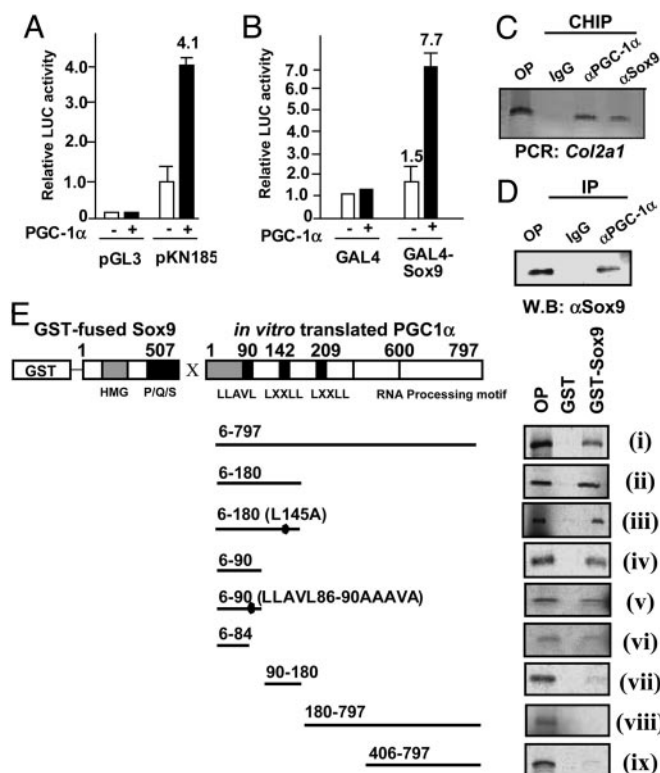


Fig. 2. *PGC-1 α* regulates *Sox9*-dependent *Col2a1* gene expression by direct association with *Sox9*. (*A* and *B*) *PGC-1 α* potentiates transcriptional activity of *Sox9* in a luciferase (LUC) reporter assay. (*A*) SW1353 cells were transfected with reporter plasmids of pGL3-control or pKN185luc containing the *Col2a1* enhancer sequence. Overexpression of *PGC-1 α* enhanced reporter activity of pKN185, which is regulated by endogenous *Sox9*, but not that of the pGL3 control vector. (*B*) Reporter plasmid containing Gal4 binding sites was transfected into SW1353 cells with either Gal4 or Gal4–*Sox9*. Cotransfection of *PGC-1 α* enhanced Gal4–*Sox9* activity. (*C*) *PGC-1 α* forms a complex with *Sox9* on the *Col2a1* enhancer. Nuclear extract of human chondrocytes was subjected to chromatin immunoprecipitation (CHIP) assay either with anti-*PGC-1 α* or anti-*Sox9* antibody. Immunoprecipitated *Col2a1* enhancer was detected by PCR. OP, output. (*D*) Endogenous interaction between *Sox9* and *PGC-1 α* in human chondrocytes by coimmunoprecipitation (IP). Lysates of human chondrocytes were immunoprecipitated with anti-*PGC-1 α* antibody. Precipitates and 10% outputs (OP) were subjected to Western blotting (W.B.) with anti-*Sox9* antibody. (*E*) Mapping of the *Sox9*-interaction domain within *PGC-1 α* by GST pull-down assay. Deletion mutants of *in vitro*-translated *PGC-1 α* were incubated with either GST or a GST-fused *Sox9*, and pull-down assay was performed to examine specific interactions. The constructs contain amino acids 6–797 (*i*), 6–180 (*ii*), 6–180 (L145A) (*iii*), 6–90 (*iv*), 6–90 (LLAVL86–90 AAAVA) (*v*), 6–84 (*vi*), 90–180 (*vii*), 180–797 (*viii*), and 406–797 (*ix*) of mouse *PGC-1 α* . Results with each deletion mutant are shown (Right). HMG, high mobility group; OP, output.

acids 6–90; Fig. 2*Eiv*). We also made *PGC-1 α* [amino acids 6–180 (L145A); Fig. 2*Eiii*], in which we introduced a point mutation to L145. This point mutation is known to disturb the interaction with HNF-4 α (21), and we observed that the mutation abolished the interaction with GST–HNF-4 α in the GST pull-down assay (data not shown). Whereas *PGC-1 α* (amino acids 90–180; Fig. 2*Evi*) did not interact with *Sox9*, we observed the interaction of *Sox9* with both *PGC-1 α* (amino acids 6–90; Fig. 2*Eiv*) and *PGC-1 α* [amino acids 6–180 (L145A); Fig. 2*Eiii*]. This result suggests that the interaction between *PGC-1 α* (amino acids 6–180; Fig. 2*Eii*) and *Sox9* does not require the LXXLL (amino acid 142) domain. We further characterized the Leu-rich domain in *PGC-1 α* (amino acids 6–90; Fig. 2*Eiv*) by mutating all of the Leu residues in the Leu-rich domain [amino acids 6–90

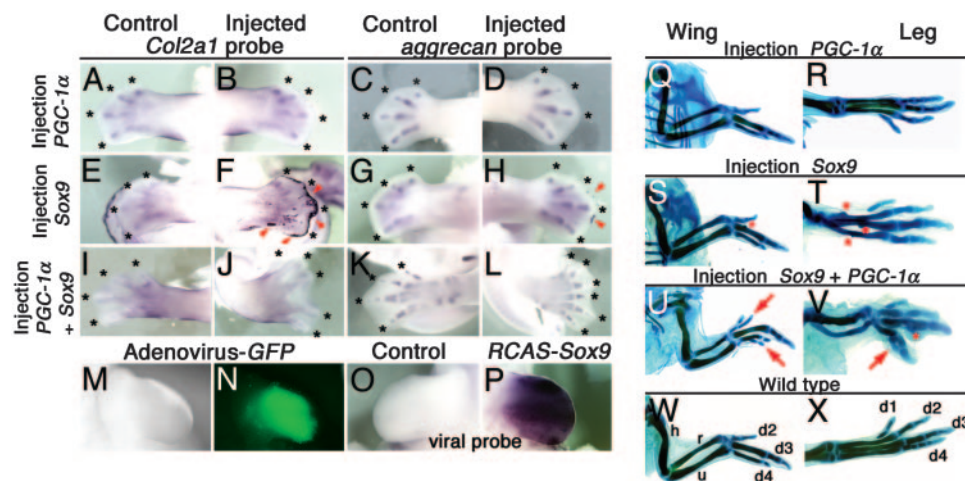


Fig. 4. Sox9 and PGC-1 α cooperate in chondrogenesis *in vivo*. (A–P) Gene expression analysis of chick limb buds overexpressed with PGC-1 α (A–D), Sox9 (E–H, O, and P), both Sox9 and PGC-1 α (I–L) or GFP (M and N). Expression patterns of *Col2a1* (A, B, E, F, I, and J) and the gene encoding aggrecan (C, D, G, H, K, and L) were analyzed. In control experiments, the transgene product, GFP (M and N) or the viral message (O and P) was monitored. In A–P, the right limb buds received the viral injections (B, D, F, H, J, L, M, N, and P), and the left limb buds of the same embryos served as a control (A, C, E, G, I, K, and O). The asterisks indicate the distal tip of the digit primordia. All images are dorsal views. To evaluate virus systems, the bright-field image (M) and the dark-field image (N) of the same limb bud 20 h after injection of adenovirus-GFP are shown, and the RCAS infection was detected throughout limb bud mesenchyme at Hamburger–Hamilton (HH) stage 23 (O and P). (Q–X) Skeletal preparation of chondrogenic matrix stained by Alcian blue at HH stage 36. Chick embryonic wing (Q, S, U, and W) and leg (R, T, V, and X) after overexpression of PGC-1 α (Q and R), Sox9 (S and T), or both Sox9 and PGC-1 α (U and V) are shown. The WT (W and X) is shown for comparison. The skeletal elements are indicated only in WT (W and X) for simplicity. h, humerus; r, radius; u, ulna; d1, digit I; d2, digit II; d3, digit III; d4, digit IV.

red color (Fig. 3I). These results are consistent with our gene expression analysis in MSC overexpressed with Sox9 and/or PGC-1 α and further support our theory that PGC-1 α acts as a coactivator for Sox9 during chondrogenesis.

PGC-1 α and Sox9 Cooperate in Chondrogenesis *in Vivo*. To further examine the role of PGC-1 α during chondrogenesis, we made use of developing chick limb buds. This system allows us to analyze the function of genes *in vivo* by viral-mediated overexpression (13, 25). We focused on an analysis of ectopic induction of target genes and chondrogenesis by using *Col2a1* and the gene encoding aggrecan, because their transcripts have been shown to be highly correlated with chondrogenesis in developing chick limb buds (4).

We did not observe any significant change in the expression pattern of *Col2a1* and the gene encoding aggrecan with overexpression of PGC-1 α (Fig. 4A–D, $n = 42$ and $n = 26$ for *Col2a1* and *aggrecan*, respectively). Both *Col2a1* and *aggrecan* expression was observed in digital primordia (marked by * in Fig. 4) without ectopic expression. Correlating with this finding, we did not observe ectopic cartilage by overexpressing PGC-1 α at later stages (Fig. 4Q and R, $n = 20/20$), as compared with the WT (Fig. 4W and X), although a transient, accelerated cartilage matrix accumulation was observed ($n = 16/75$, data not shown). We used adenovirus-GFP to examine tissue integrity and transgene expression and confirmed that the adenovirus system effectively overexpresses the transgene in developing limb buds (Fig. 4M and N, $n = 15/15$).

Overexpression of Sox9 via RCAS virus induced ectopic expression of *Col2a1* and the gene encoding aggrecan. This up-regulation was detected in a scattered manner, predominantly in the distal ridge of the limb (Fig. 4E–H, $n = 18/44$ and $n = 4/28$ for *Col2a1* and *aggrecan*, respectively). We examined expression of viral message by *in situ* hybridization for a viral gene and confirmed that the viral message is detected throughout the developing limb with the RCAS system (Fig. 4O and P, $n = 30/35$). Consistent with this effect on chondrogenic gene expression, we observed small spot-like ectopic cartilage elements associated with endogenous digits with low efficiency (Fig.

4S and T, $n = 5/40$, indicated by red asterisks). These results suggest that Sox9 alone can promote chondrogenesis in chick limb buds. However, the effect was not significant and was restricted to small regions such as the distal ridge, whereas the transgene was widely expressed.

Correlating with our analysis in MSC, we observed significant effects by cooverexpressing Sox9 and PGC-1 α in the developing limb. Double overexpression resulted in ectopic chondrogenesis, shown by ectopic expression of *Col2a1* and *aggrecan*, which is morphologically similar to their expression in digit primordia (Fig. 4I–L, $n = 18/82$ and $n = 3/12$ for *Col2a1* and *aggrecan*, respectively). In particular, Fig. 4I shows a developing leg expressing *Col2a1* in five-digit primordia, whereas the contralateral, normal chick leg contains four-digit primordia (Fig. 4I). Also, Fig. 4L shows *aggrecan* expression associated with six-digit primordia compared with four in the contralateral leg. In relation with the ectopic expression of these genes, we observed ectopic cartilage similar to endogenous digits (Fig. 4U and V, $n = 17/54$, indicated by red arrows). Our results demonstrate that Sox9 and PGC-1 α cooperate during chondrogenesis *in vivo* and further support our model that PGC-1 α interacts with Sox9 to promote cartilage-specific gene expression and, hence, chondrogenesis.

Discussion

The precise growth and patterning of the developing skeletal framework have been shown to be regulated by the sequential expression of transcription factors (26). Our findings provide evidence that, in addition to these transcription factors, a transcriptional coactivator, PGC-1 α , also plays a role in chondrogenesis.

Some coactivators have been shown to be involved in tissue development and differentiation. In view of the fact that many cofactors are widely expressed, PGC-1 α is a unique coactivator, because its expression level is dramatically changed during adaptive thermogenesis (27) and muscle fiber type determination (28). Our data further show that PGC-1 α exhibits dynamic expression during chondrogenesis in the developing limb and differentiating MSC, correlating with the initial process of chondrogenesis (Fig. 1). The PGC-1 α expression pattern suggests that not only does PGC-1 α have a specific interaction with

the transcription factor Sox9, but also, that its specific expression might contribute to normal chondrogenesis. This hypothesis is further enhanced by the fact that TGF- β stimulates *PGC-1 α* expression during MSC chondrogenesis. Microarray analyses of MSC undergoing chondrogenesis with TGF- β stimulation characterized a number of genes involved in chondrogenesis (5). Although *PGC-1 α* was not identified in the analyses, our data clearly demonstrate up-regulation of *PGC-1 α* during chondrogenesis of MSC (Fig. 1*P*). The up-regulation was observed 2 h poststimulation, and this rapid up-regulation suggests that *PGC-1 α* is one of the mediators of TGF- β stimulation during the early process of chondrogenesis. Although it is not known how *PGC-1 α* expression is regulated during chondrogenesis, it is noteworthy that *PGC-1 α* expression is regulated by cAMP response element-binding (CREB) protein binding protein activity during gluconeogenesis (20, 21). It would be interesting to examine TGF- β -downstream molecule(s) that might regulate *PGC-1 α* expression.

The biochemical analyses identified a unique domain of *PGC-1 α* , lying in its amino-terminal region, for direct interaction with Sox9 to activate Sox9-dependent *Col2a1* expression during chondrogenesis (Fig. 2). This finding is consistent with the idea that Sox9 requires a molecular partner(s) for tissue-specific gene regulation and chondrogenesis, as Sox9 also exists in undifferentiated MSC (Fig. 1*Q* and ref. 5) and noncartilage tissues (6). Accumulating evidence has revealed that transcription factors exert their activities through docking with chromatin-modifying factors, as well as coregulatory factors (29). Because Sox9 is also shown to interact with cAMP response element-binding protein binding protein (CBP)/p300 to activate *Col2a1* enhancer (8), it is conceivable that both *PGC-1 α* and CBP/p300 might be part of a larger transcriptional machinery including Sox9.

Our functional analyses with MSC differentiation and developing chick limbs show that *PGC-1 α* functions with Sox9 to regulate chondrogenesis. Beside *Col2a1*, a direct target of Sox9 (23, 24), cooverexpression of *Sox9* and *PGC-1 α* activated other chondrogenic gene expressions including those encoding link protein, *COMP*, and aggrecan (Figs. 3 and 4). It is not clear whether these genes are direct targets of Sox9 during chondro-

genesis. Nevertheless, these genes are known to be up-regulated during chondrogenesis both in the differentiating MSC and the developing limb buds (4, 5). Therefore, our gene expression analyses suggest that not only was *Col2a1* gene expression initiated by Sox9 and *PGC-1 α* , but the process of chondrogenesis was as well. In agreement with this finding, coexpression of both factors resulted in a significant increase of cartilage matrix accumulation in MSC and in the formation of ectopic digits in the developing chick limb (Figs. 3 and 4). These data further support our theory that *PGC-1 α* regulates chondrogenesis as a coactivator for Sox9.

Our loss-of-function study revealed that the inhibitory effect of *PGC-1 α* knockdown on *Col2a1* expression appears to be significant. *PGC-1 α* siRNA partially down-regulated *Col2a1* gene expression, whereas *PGC-1 α* protein was almost undetectable (Fig. 3*A* and *B*). One possible reason is that *PGC-1 α* shares its biological functions with some other factors, such as *PGC-1 β* , as shown in other systems (30).

Many coactivators have the potential to interact with multiple transcription factors and regulate their activities. Thus, in addition to Sox9, *PGC-1 α* may regulate other chondrogenesis-related transcription factors during mesenchymal differentiation. Overall, our findings provide insights for having a better understanding of the molecular mechanisms underlying chondrogenesis. Furthermore, regulating chondrogenesis by means of Sox9 and *PGC-1 α* in human MSC opens the possibility for exploring molecular engineering of chondrogenesis in clinical settings.

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